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PRIMARY TEACHING

IN

RIO DE JANEIRO

BY

BRAZIL SILVADO

DISTRICT SCHOOL INSPECTOR, AND PROFESSOR OF LAW IN THE FREE FACULTY
OF THE SAME CITY, ETC.

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INTRODUCTION.

READER.

Desiring to render a modest service to Public Instruction in our country, giving an exact outline of it, and at the same time rendering homage to the glorious people of North America, my wife and I have undertaken the present work, destined to the Chicago Exhibition, to be realised next year.

Having passed a great part of my life in my sister's school, having exercised by taste the office of Inspector of Instruction during nearly three years (1884-1886), at the time in which this office was gratuitous, and exercising it now, remunerated, I am very happy to write a few lines about our public schools, which, although not the first in the world, are, nevertheless, worthy of attention and esteem, not only by the services they render, as also by the efforts of the teachers that direct them.

Our Public Instruction is now in a period of transition. If we compare its present state with that of ten years ago, we shall see that the difference for the better is very great, though many things are wanting to bring it up to the point it should attain.

The modern progressive movement in this respect dates from 1879. The liberty of teaching proclaimed in the decree of the 19th of April of that year, drawn up by the Liberal minister Leoncio de Carvalho, and the ideas presented and defended by him, awoke public attention to primary, secondary and superior instruction.

In the year 1883, Souza Bandeira, an intelligent and celebrated Inspector General of Public Instruction, gave a great impulse to this movement, that, happily, has always continued to strengthen so that, when on the 15th of November 1889 the sword of Deodoro and the talent of Benjamin Constant implanted the Republic in our native country, it was understood by all that on the instruction and education of the people depended the stability of the same.

Brazilian thinkers, convinced of this truth, turned their eyes towards this great people of North America, who had practically demonstrated it, as Switzerland had done in 1848, moulding its constitution by that of North America, adopting also a great part of its educational principles, and republican France when it was forced to recognise that by *civic instruction* alone, seriously taught in its schools, it could combat the clerical and legitimist influence there directed by active hands against the Republic.

On the 24th of February 1891 we moulded our constitution by the North American, from which it differs in few points.

If, for example, our constitution has laid down the principle of the direct election of the Chief of the Executive Power, and his non re-election for the next period, while the North American determines the principle of the election of two degrees, and consents to re-election, this was due, without doubt, to the study that our constituent legislator made as to public opinion in the United States upon these two points.

And truly a better model could not be met with by our new Republic than that offered by the example of more than a hundred years of peace, order and prosperity !

The difficulties we struggle with in our administrative and political reorganisation, unhappily, have not permitted us to take also as a model of our public teaching reform everything that in these respects has been put in practice in that great nation.

Our individual initiative is as yet weak; the expansion of our local life is very limited; the municipal towns have not as yet vitality of their own; our population was accustomed to expect all from the government: — seventy years of political and administrative centralisation could give no other result!

For these powerful motives the reform of our Public Instruction, of 8th November 1890, resembles more the French type, the legislator having doubtless recognised that the North American type was not suitable for our special position, sustained as it is in that country by the high comprehension of a people that, among many others, has had a Matthew Vassar, a Peabody, and the generous benefactors of Yale College, to give hundreds of millions of dollars for the benefit of the instruction and education of the people!

This educational reform, the first promulgated after the proclamation of the Republic, began to be executed at the beginning of 1891.

By it the city of Rio de Janeiro was divided into seven districts of Instruction, each one with an Inspector representing the Inspector-General; and in relation to the plan of primary teaching the reform divided it into two degrees, creating schools of the second degree. that did not previously exist, and increasing the number of the schools of the first degree.

At the same time primary teaching of the first degree was also divided into three courses: the *elementary*, *medium*, and *superior*; and each one of these courses into two classes, every one of them having a programme, the execution of which, in normal circumstances, should be realised within a lective year.

Six years are, then, the primary course of the first degree, and the reform having begun to be executed in 1891, we have only to judge in relation to the first class of the elementary course, as the pupils that in this year had already made some progress, by the anterior programme, continued their studies by it, and by it they passed their examinations, with the simple addition of what it was possible to teach them of the new programme.

The observations that, in this work, we are about to make, and that constitute the technical part of it, refer, then, principally to the studies of this first class of the elementary course, because this class, by its programme, is the basis of the primary course; but we will also add a few observations relative to the second class.

Our district possesses twenty-one primary schools of the first degree, ten being for boys and eleven for girls; two municipal schools for both sexes, and thirty private establishments of instruction, the whole giving a school population of nearly four thousand children.

Our primary public schools of the first degree for girls receive boys up to eight years of age. We shall only treat of the teaching in the primary schools of the first degree, because there are no schools of the second degree in this district.

Private teaching is completely free, being subject only to official inspection as to morality, hygiene and statistics.

This outline will consist of three parts :

I. Programmes of the first, and of the second class of the elementary course ;

II. Observations upon the execution of these programmes, in relation to each one of the subjects of which they are composed;

III. *Desiderata* of our primary public teaching.

Such will be our work. If the manner in which we are about to fulfill our task deserves benevolence in the great country, where Longfellow composed his sweet verses, where Washington and Lincoln showed to the world the fellowship of great souls with great hearts, of great intelligences with great characters, we shall be most happy, receiving with this benevolence our greatest recompense.

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FIRST PART.

(*PROGRAMMES.*)

FIRST DEGREE PRIMARY SCHOOL.

ELEMENTARY COURSE.

FIRST CLASS.

READING AND WRITING.

Elements of simultaneous reading and writing. Words, syllables, letters, and alphabet as repetition. Dictation of short sentences, the elements of which have been already learned.

PORTUGUESE LANGUAGE.

Oral exercises; conversations for the purpose of teaching the pupil to express himself correctly, and to correct his defects of pronunciation.

ARITHMETIC.

To count, first by the spontaneous process, by employing the fingers, strokes, little stones, grains, beads, etc., and after the rosaries, the mechanical reckoner, the numeral sift, and the *abacus*, using at the same time the proper terminology of systematical nomenclature.

Practical knowledge of fractions: half, the third part, the fourth part, etc., and the comparison of these fractions themselves.

To write the numbers. Practical exercises in adding, in subtracting, and in multiplying simple numbers. Mental exercises of easy sums. Practical knowledge of the metre, and its divisions into tenths and hundredths. To read and write any number of three figures. Practical knowledge of paper money up to the notes of 100,000 rs.

GEOMETRY.

Knowledge of the sphere, and hemisphere; of the circle; of the cone; of the triangular pyramid, and of the triangle; of the quadrangular pyramid; of the quadrilateral figure and of its varieties; of the cylinder; of the prism; of the parallelopipedon, and of the cube. Comparison of the cone with the cylinder, and to express the difference.

Right lines, broken, curved, mixed, and their direction. Knowledge of the three positions of a right line in relation with another, and the respective direction. Parallel, convergent, perpendicular, vertical and horisontal lines. Knowledge of the angle, and of its species.

OBJECT LESSONS.

The five senses and their culture, especially of the sight, and the hearing. Objects that affect the senses. Colours, forms, sounds, rings, voices, taste, and other qualities of objects. States of bodies. To designate solid and liquid substances, and some of their qualities. To distinguish natural from artificial objects. Raw material. Division into mineral, vegetable and animal branches. Examples.

The most common products of industry. Different forms of animals; mamiferous, birds, reptiles and fishes.

Tame and wild animals. Elementary notions of the human body.

GEOGRAPHY.

The cardinal points. To determine the point where the sun rises, and where it sets. To show the cardinal points in the class-room. Topography of the school district, with designation of the limits, streets, and notable edifices. To recognise on the maps the situation of the Federal Capital, State of Rio de Janeiro, and of the neighbouring States. The limits of the Federal Capital. Railways that start from it, showing the directions. Explanation of the geographical terms, and to prepare the study of general Geography by the descriptive method. Some idea of the earth, its form, extension and great divisions.

OUR NATIONAL HISTORY.

Short narratives. Narrations of voyages, with the help of pictures. To explain some historical and capital facts, showing the biographies of Christopher Columbus, Pedro Alvares Cabral, José de Anchietta, Salvador Correia de Sá, Henrique Dias, Philippe Camarão, Joaquim José da Silva Xavier, José Bonifacio de Andrada e Silva, D. Pedro I, D. Pedro II, Duque de Caxias, and Generalissimo Manoel Deodoro da Fonseca.

MORAL AND CIVIC INSTRUCTION.

Moral anecdotes, fables, tales and proverbs.

To show the pupils constantly, by direct experience, the grandeur of moral laws.

NOTIONS OF AGRICULTURE.

Knowledge of the most usual instruments and their employment: spade, hoe, rake, small hoe, scythe, sickle, reaping-hook, etc. Summary and practical notions of the culture of common and kitchen-garden plants. Qualities of the ground. Principal fruit-trees of Brazil. Animals useful to Agriculture.

DRAWING.

Right lines and their combinations represented on the black-board, and afterwards on paper, with black and coloured pencils. Reproduction of usual objects.

MUSIC.

School songs, learned by ear.

GYMNASTICS.

Preliminary movements: forming in line according to height, to number one's self, to take the distances, to close ranks, to stand at ease, firm, right about face, to the right, to the left. To march, changing directions. Graduated gymnastic exercises. Movements and flexions of the arms, legs, trunk, and head. Running and jumping suitable to age. Children's games.

MANUAL WORKS.

Paper-work. Double :geometrical figures, ornaments, simple objects. To cut out : geometrical figures, ornaments, etc. Tissues: designs, ribbon-work, alphabet, numbers. Cardboard ; to cut out in the form of geometrical solids. *Work for girls.* Froebelian exercises : double, tissue, plaited. Elementary exercises of modelling.

SECOND CLASS.

READING AND WRITING.

Graduated exercises of simultaneous reading and writing. Dictation of sentences progressively more difficult.

Exercises in current reading in prose, with the explanation of the words used.

PORTUGUESE LANGUAGE.

Decomposition of all sorts of words in sounds and letters. To distinguish simple from compound words. Practical notion of masculine and feminine, singular and plural ideas. Some idea of the substantive, of the adjective, of the verb, by means of numerous examples; sentences containing the substantive, the adjective and the verb.

To apply verbs to a subject given, and *vice-versa.*

First exercises of oral conjugation in complete propositions. Reading, by dictation, from the text of current reading.

ARITHMETIC.

Read and write compound numbers up to six figures, employing the primitive processes and the systematic one. A clear idea of the unity, tenth and hundredth of thousand. The value of capital letters used as Roman numbers. Exercises on the four operations, always from the concrete point of view. Mental calculation. The terms of the fraction, and their signification. Read and write decimal fractions up to five figures. Of the week; the month; the year; the day in hours and minutes. Practical knowledge of national coins. Metrical measures.

GEOMETRY.

The lines and spaces of the circle. Difference between the circle and the circumference.

Repetition of the angles. Nomenclature of the plane polygonal figures by the number of sides; distinguish the regular from irregular figures.

Practical knowledge of the geometrical solids. Calculate the superficies of a rectangle, of a parallelogram, and of a rectilinear triangle.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Repetition of the notions of the human body. Knowledge of the most common objects of the animal, vegetable and mineral kingdoms, and their utility.

Animals: ox; horse; ass; sheep; pig; dog; cat; hen and another domestic fowl; birds; chelonians; fish.

Vegetables: fruit-trees; *banana*-tree; palm-tree; common vegetables.

Minerals: granite; clays; pit-coal.

Knowledge of articles of food; meat; bread; coffee; chocolate; matte; tea; milk; butter; cheese; sugar; vegetables; potatoes; wine; brandy.

GEOGRAPHY.

General and gradual knowledge of the twenty one States (by the map); what their situation and principal products.

Idea of the relief of Brazilian territory, of the great fluvial basins, and of the ports.

Journeys from the capital to each State.

Principal railways and navigation lines in Brazil.

Repetition of general Geography and its gradual amplification: the terrestrial globe, continents and oceans, principal countries of the world.

Idea of cartographic representation, elements of the reading of maps and plans.

OUR NATIONAL HISTORY.

Simple narrations, without the aid of book, of episodes of the national history. Biographies of Manoel da Nobrega, Nicolau Durand de Villegaignon, André Vidal de Negreiros, João Fernandes Vieira, Calabar, Padre Antonio Vieira, Bartholomeu Bueno, Claudio Manoel da Costa, Alvarenga Peixoto, Thomaz Antonio Gonzaga, Alexandre Rodrigues Ferreira, Fr. J. Mariano da Conceição Velloso, José da Silva Lisbôa, Visconde de Cayrú, Martim Francisco de Andrada, Antonio Carlos, Evaristo Xavier da Veiga, Diogo Antonio Feijó, General Osorio and Visconde de Rio Branco.

MORAL AND CIVIC INSTRUCTION.

Conversations and moral readings. Comparative exemplification of generosity and egoism; of economy and avarice; of industry and idleness; of moderation and anger; of love and hate; of benevolence and envy; of sincerity and hypocrisy; of pleasures and pains (physical and moral); of benefits and evils (false and true).

NOTIONS OF AGRICULTURE.

Employment of agricultural instruments: a plough, harrow, hoe, weeder, root-hoe, sower, etc.

Manures and their employment. Vegetable and animal manure. Continuation of the culture of common and of kitchen-garden plants, and orchard-culture.

Culture of grains: corn, rice, etc. Their varieties. Treatment of animals useful to Agriculture.

DRAWING.

Direction of right lines, and their division into equal parts. Reproduction and avaliation of the angles. Easy problems of the construction of lines, angles, triangles and quadrilaterals, and of the construction of lines in the circle. Graduated reproduction of common objects.

MUSIC.

Songs. Knowledge and reading of notes.

GYMNASTICS.

Gymnastic exercises, and continuation of the preliminaries of evolutions. Games.

MANUAL WORKS.

Card-board: boxes, cases, pocket-books, etc., together with coloured drawings and tissues.

Ornamentation of these objects.

Modelling: geometrical solids, simple ornaments.

Moulding: reproduction of the best modelled works; simple objects.

Work for girls: continuation of the previous programme.

Cut out paper. Simple card-board. Knitting with wool.

All primary teaching starts from these programmes, which are constantly enlarged and amplified.

The programmes of the first and second classes of the medium, and of the first and second classes of the superior courses, all comprise the same subjects, developed in their natural and upward march.

In the elementary course, the two classes which exist in all the schools of this district, besides the advanced classes which follow the programme of 1883, the teachers employ, generally, the inductive method, always having in view the concretisation of notions, which method should also be employed in the medium course, reserving the deductive method, which requires a greater development and firmness of reasoning, for the superior course, because this course is the repetition and the most complete amplification of the two anterior courses; but the teaching should always be intuitive, the book being a simple aid, the knowledge acquired in the class being completed by reading.

The primary teaching of the second degree, which consists of a single course of three classes, will complete the teaching of the courses of the first degree, making important applications and amplifications, going, for example, in elementary Mathematics as far as Trigonometry—in Drawing as far as the landscape, design of simple engine, and the topographic design—in Gymnastics as far as fencing with different arms, and in manual work as far as iron works.

This course contains further the study of the elements of the French language, of notions of our national Law, and of Political Economy.

The pupil, who having passed the final examinations, has concluded either of these two courses, will receive a certificate that, being of the course of the first degree, will give him a free entrance into the establishments of normal, and of secondary teaching, and will be required, within six years, counted from the date of the execution of the reform, as an indispensable condition to all citizens that seek employment in the State departments; and the certificate being of the course of the second degree, beyond this right, will exempt him from the examinations of Portuguese, Geography, and elementary Mathematics, if he is a candidate to any public employment, that does not require special and technical training.

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SECOND PART.

(EXECUTION OF THE PROGRAMMES.)

EXECUTION OF THE PROGRAMMES.

READING AND WRITING.

Reading, Writing and Drawing are the three powerful means of study, consecrated by human experience. All important knowledge later on will be acquired by these three means, the teaching of which merits at present the greatest attention in our schools.

Our teachers, for the better fulfillment of their mission, are accustomed to divide the first class of the elementary course into two groups, one of the children ignorant of the alphabet, or nearly so, and another of those who already know how to read and to write a little.

Teachers have recognized how imperfect and prejudicial was the method of making the memory of the child the principal agent of learning to read, and of making writing only a mechanical and exclusive function.

The old system of spelling is banished almost completely from our schools, for, besides being the most difficult, it gave the mind of the children a mistaken notion in regard to the phonetic element of the consonants, which, isolated, have one sound, and combined with vowels, in words, have another sound.

The method of spelling by syllables is in preference followed, but not in an exclusive or arbitrary form. To oblige the children to pronounce syllables without meaning, in the first lessons, would be as fastidious and useless as to oblige them to pronounce simple letters. It is true they learn also to know the letters, not learning them by heart in the book, but by the decomposition of the first monosyllables learned, which generally refer only to well known objects, shown to the pupils in the class, just as they are, either by engravings, or drawn by the teacher upon the black-board.

The reading and writing exercises are nearly always simultaneous, taking great care to make the pupil read in a loud voice the letter he reads, all his class-companions taking part in these exercises. A syllable, or letter, once known, the teacher will make the pupils point it out in any place of the room wherever it is to be found, on the wall charts, in the books, etc.

In this manner, the teaching being rendered attractive, the beginners, in a short time, are no longer so.

As soon as the little beginner, by means of these exercises, can write a few letters and numbers with the pencil, he will do his first exercise in the copy book of monthly tasks, in which the pupils write the first task of each month upon each one of the subjects of the programme, and which registers the progress made from month to month.

Others teachers, making these processes easier, teach the pupils immediately to recognize the vowels by means of simultaneous exercises of reading and writing, because the letters being nothing but combinations of right and curved lines, by the tracing of these the child forms the vowels.

When these are known, the teacher begins to join them with consonants, forming monosyllables and dissylables representing words that express common ideas and objects, that are shown to the pupils, whenever possible.

Progress is very soon realized in this way when the exercise is varied, and all the class interested in it, the pupils being called at each moment to produce on the black-board new combinations that, at the same time, are copied on the slates by the other pupils, who remain seated.

Current reading, that even a few years ago was performed in some schools in an entirely mechanical way, without the pupil understanding what he was reading, is to-day one of the exercises most varied and intelligently performed in the greater part of the schools.

The class formed, each pupil with his book open, the teacher shows the periods that must be read, and reads them himself in a loud voice. Next, observed by the teacher, one of the pupils reads the same passage, while the teacher corrects the defects of pronunciation, of utterance, of inflection of voice, etc. Afterwards, he begins a conversation with the pupil upon the signification of the words, not consenting for the pupil to pass on without knowing perfectly the signification and value of the words before read. This work being finished, the reading is repeated by the same pupil, and by his class-companions, any defects always being corrected by the teacher, and after this he also interrogates them as to the meaning of the periods read, asking them their opinion about the questions included in such periods.

This is the practice generally followed, in favor of which the teachers always ask for the concession of a good length of time, in the schedule, nearly two hours being conceded them for the simultaneous exercises of reading and writing, because to read and write are not the only benefits derived from these exercises, but many others are gained at the same time. The ideas, notions, and advice included in the period, all are awakened, examined and acquired.

The teaching of reading and writing, being effected simultaneously, awake in the children such an interest, that, in a short time, they offer the observer an admirable result.

The teaching of writing, at the beginning, is given in the manner already mentioned. As soon as by a constant exercise with chalk on the black-board, with the slate-pencil, and with the lead-pencil on paper, the pupil acquires a certain facility, which happens in a few days, he passes on to write with pen and ink in common copy-books.

The system of copy-books with punctuated words to be covered by the pupils is completely banished. In a great part of the schools the teacher merely writes the word, or words, of the lesson at the top of the copy-book page of each pupil, or upon the black-board in front of the class, to be written by all the pupils in the copy-books.

To avoid the natural want of attention of the children, or the mistakes proceeding from the vivacity of some, who learn by heart the words written to reproduce them, mistaking them in this reproduction, some teachers write words of a foreign language, or of our own language, but entirely unknown by the pupils.

This will oblige them to observe the word, letter by letter, to reproduce it in their copy-books ; principally in the classes that, by their progress, require a greater attention to the calligraphic part.

The teaching of writing is also begun by exercises of the reproduction on the slates, of the drawing of lines, of vowels and consonants, that exist at the side of the same slates, as also the teaching of drawing begins by exercises of the reproduction of the drawings of common objects that are also there.

PORTUGUESE LANGUAGE.

The teaching of this subject has in our schools, principally in the elementary classes, a form entirely practical.

The teacher making his pupil speak, and talking with him, teaches him to know his own language, and to make use of it ; but it is only orally that such exercises are done. One of the pupils, or the teacher, writes on the black-board some words, or sentences, which would need some explanation.

In the first class of the elementary course these exercises limit themselves to the pronunciation, and knowledge of the signification of easy words. It is in the second-class that this teaching begins to awake a greater interest, and in this class are done the first exercises of free composition.

Nearly always the exercise begins by a word representing an animal, or any thing very well known by the children. Some word being written on the black-board as *horse*, *cat*, *ox*, all the grammatical questions are immediately proposed as conversation : how many letters compose the word ; the names of these letters ; how many vowels and consonants ; if the word is a monosyllable, dissyllable, or a polysyllable ; if it contains diphthongs, and which they are ; if the animal or the object represented by the word is of the masculine, feminine, or neuter gender ; if it is in the singular or plural ; if it is a substantive, adjective, or verb.

When this is done, the same word passes to be modified by the pupils. If it is a substantive, the teacher asks them to qualify it, joining certain adjectives to it.

Thus, if the word is *house*, each pupil will present his idea. One will say that it is *large*, and will write this qualification next the word; another will say that it is *pretty*; another will say that it is *small*, and so forth.

These exercises being varied and rendered attractive by the teacher, are very much enjoyed by the children, and each one of them tries as quickly as possible to present the best idea to qualify a substantive, to give the verb the subject it needs, or to join the substantive to the adjective.

As Inspector of instruction I have recommended persistence in these exercises, because I have observed, in final examinations, and practically in the schools, that the children find a difficulty to express their ideas, always showing themselves timid when any one asks them for an original narration, exclusively their own, upon a given subject, or for a composition.

To make the child speak is a necessity of the primary school, as also to make him write what he feels and thinks.

At present the exercises done take as their topic the most trivial subjects of a child's life: the walk, the games, etc., and have the narrative or epistolary form.

Many teachers take advantage of the fables of Lafontaine, because they have an interesting character, teach them to the children, and provoke their opinion upon the moral included in the fable recited.

In the final examinations of last year, some results worthy of attention in this respect were already presented.

The difficulties met with by the children for the free narration or composition comes from the depressing system, employed only a few years ago, in their education, and does not proceed from their intelligence, because what is asked of them is not the purely literary narration or composition, but the written or oral exposition of what they feel or think, in a natural tone, in language suitable to their age, and simply without the defects and vices of pronunciation, utterance, or of wording.

There are many parents who at every moment bid their children be quiet, never satisfy their natural curiosity, do not incite, do not guide, and do not praise them.

The primary school will correct these great defects. The results of the past year guarantee this.

Let us take a glance at North America!

Our greatest desire is that one day may be said of us what Hippeau said of the reading in the North American schools:

"I have never heard prose read, and verses recited better than in the North American schools!"

ARITHMETIC

This subject which like Geometry depends so much on reasoning and reflection, was one of those that most tortured the children, by the manner in which it was taught on the old and anti-pedagogical system of making the memory the principal agent of study.

Not even was the idea of *unity* and *plurality* given practically! The pupil learned first to retain by memory the figures representing numbers, and afterwards to add, to subtract, to multiply, and to divide in an abstract manner, employing the figures only, and never practically, in a concrete manner, recurring to common objects themselves.

If the boys could understand this, they had to bless the invention of the mechanical reckoner, that freed them from real tortures, making easy and agreeable what was difficult and fastidious.

What is not well understood cannot be well learned, and on the old system the boy learned by heart without understanding.

There were some schools in which, for a long time, numerous classes of pupils were ordered to recite, in a loud voice, a kind of original sing-song in monotonous cadence, the four fundamental operations of Arithmetic!

If it was so in relation to the entire numbers, greater still was the difficulty when the boy passed on to study fractions.

Happily the conscience of the best educators revolted against this barbarous system, and the propaganda of good principles has succeeded in putting it entirely aside.

To-day it is with pleasure that the child initiates his study of Arithmetic.

The teacher does not oblige him to learn by heart definitions, rules, numbers, operations. The fingers of his own hand, engravings representing one, two, three, four, five dolls; five balls of the mechanical reckoner; five fruits—give him, without difficulty, the knowledge of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 objects, at the same time as he himself draws them on the slate, or on the black-board.

Five fingers more of the other hand, five balls more of one of the bars of the reckoner, complete the ten.

The child observes, and experiences the pleasure of running the balls by himself, one by one, from one side to another, counts them, and acknowledges that they are really ten.

The first difficulty is vanquished!

The excercise with this first ten is repeated, varied, divided, and finally done in a thousand ways, because on it depends the good result of other more difficult ones.

All the operations of addition that can be effected with the ten balls being thoroughly practised, the child goes on to do them with the numbers on the black-board.

It is in this concrete manner that all the rules are taught. The child sees that taking two balls on one of the bars of the mechanical reckoner, and passing them from one side to another; then two more balls of the next bar, and then two others at another bar, he has *three times* two balls; he adds them, and sees that they are six, that is — three times two balls give six balls as a result.

Afterwards he sees that placing also three balls on one of the ends of the bar, and three balls more on the next bar the result is the same as that in the former operation: six balls.

Thus the child has learned practically the rule: *the order of the factors does not alter the product.*

The same facility is given with other more important rules of calculation, which later on will be met with by the pupils, in their superior studies, as though old acquaintances.

It is in seeing the material demonstration of the rule that the child can understand it well.

The Baron de Macahubas, one of the best Brazilian educators, no longer living, had invented a mechanical reckoner destined to render the study of fractions easy, the difficulty of which for the children he himself had often verified in his school, as being much greater for them than the learning of operations with whole numbers.

This difficulty had already been observed by an American teacher, Mac-Vicar, inventor of a mechanical reckoner adapted also to the study of fractions.

As in the teaching of the operations with whole numbers, for the fractions also the teachers employ the concrete method.

For example, if the lesson had been given with the reckoner invented by the Baron de Macahubas, the teacher, to show that the unity is equivalent to the same unity divided into equal parts, would show the pupils the first bar of this reckoner containing an entire cylinder ; he would then show them the second bar, containing an identical cylinder, divided into two equal parts, or two halves ; then the third, containing the cylinder divided into three equal parts, or three thirds, and afterwards the fourth, fifth, etc.

And thus the comparison between the first entire cylinder and the others in fractions being established, and the equal length of them all being verified, the pupil would write on the black-board the figures corresponding to the cylinder and its parts :

$$1 = \frac{2}{2} = \frac{3}{3} = \frac{4}{4} = \frac{5}{5} \text{ etc.}$$

In this way the pupil would be given the practical knowledge of the rule : *the unity is equivalent to any fraction where the numerator is equal to the denominator.*

And so forth in relation to other rules of teaching of fractions.

The exercises of mental calculation have always as their basis problems relative to daily life: household expenses ; the change to be given in certain purchases ; the value, separately, of the objects, the total price of which was a quantity given, etc.

Finally, the teaching has always in view to prepare the child for practical real life.

The same thing happens with the metrical system. The schools possess boxes containing all the metrical measures, and the lessons upon this subject are given with them upon the table of the teacher, in view of the pupils.

The use of these measures is made practically, and from these practical exercises the theoretical rule is deduced.

The relative capacity of multiples and submultiples of the measures is shown by experience.

The cereals and liquids are measured by the pupils themselves in the respective litres, decalitres, and decilitres; the solids are weighed in the scales; the dimensions of the table, of the black-board, of the class-room, are measured with the metre and with the decametre; the handkerchiefs of the pupils, books, etc., with the decimetres and centimetres.

Pretended business operations are done among the pupils, under the direction of the teacher.

GEOMETRY.

In the two classes of the elementary course the teaching of this subject is purely practical.

The lines are shown not only by drawing on the black-board, as also in the class-room itself in any place where they may be: the straight horisontal lines of the floor, the straight perpendicular lines formed by the doorways in relation with the floor, and that also give an idea of the parallels ; the angles formed by the corners of the room, the square form of the window-panes, and of the doors : all is shown by the pupil to demonstrate the knowledge acquired by the explanation given in view of a simple drawing.

Geometrical solids, made of wood, are shown to the pupils for the purpose of any explanation in reference to each one of them, and afterwards the teacher asks the pupils to show him some objects having an equal form.

If it was a sphere, the pupils show the geographical globe, the balls of any school games ; if it was a cylinder, they show the pencil, bottles, certain glasses, etc.

And in this manner the pupils learn to classify the form of the objects shown them : spherical, cylindrical, prismatic, conic, etc.

The exercises of geometrical drawing are nearly always done collectively.

Called by the teacher, some of the pupils draw on the black-boards, and on the mural slates, the figures shown by him.

Those that remain seated draw them on their slates.

This work being finished, the explanations given, and the necessary corrections made, the teachers are accustomed to give to the sides of the figures drawn : triangles, parallelograms, etc., a determined value so that the pupils can calculate their surfaces.

Good teachers finish these theoretical exercises with the practical verification, and *vice-versa.*

The measure of the area of plane figures is often verified with the measuring of the dimensions of the black-board, and of the class-room themselves, etc., by the application of the scientific processes.

OBJECT LESSONS.

This teaching occupies the place of honour in modern Pedagogy. Resuming in itself all the precepts of the intuitive method, it gives the children all kinds of knowledge, from the most simple up to the most complex, from the most elementary up to the highest, awaking all the intellectual faculties, by means only of a natural stimulation of the senses.

At present there is a real enthusiasm for this system of teaching, but a certain *modus faciendi* is wanting as yet: the graduated order in the lessons is not as yet well observed, passing with excessive rapidity from the simple to the complex, from the natural to the artificial, and at the same time treating of subjects of a nature entirely diverse.

We need, then, the proper method; but if this happens in some schools, because the orbit of this teaching is so vast that the association of ideas carries the teachers further and more quickly than is necessary, in others observation and experience are already producing a certain result, and the true method is nearly established.

The five senses being the principal agents in this teaching, it begins by them as the programme determines. The teacher makes the pupil, looking at an object, show its qualities, saying what is the colour, size and form; if it has a taste, or not; if it is sonorous, or not; if it has a smell, or not.

The idea of the senses being thus awakened, the teacher asks the pupil to tell him where is the sense of sight, of hearing, of smell, etc., and the names of the respective organs, and shows the pupil, by practical examples, the difference of intensity between them; the illusions produced by the distances, which present us great stars as much less than other small ones, but that appear greater because they are nearer, as the moon for instance in relation to other stars.

This illusion was perfectly shown by a teacher to his pupils by means of the toy called *a kite*. The teacher imagined a boy to possess two *kites* of the same size, and to let one of them go up only two hundred metres from the ground, and make the other go up a thousand metres: the first would appear much larger than the second.

The influence of the distances in relation to the senses of sight and hearing is also shown to the pupils by the contemplation of material facts: — the distant thunder showing itself by the lightning much before it manifests itself by the noise; the explosion of the mine in a quarry of which we see first the dislodging of the stones, while afterwards we hear the noise, etc.

The senses well studied and exercised, the teacher passes on to make the pupils distinguish the bodies by the state in which they are: solid, liquid, gaseous, showing by purely material examples, which are the bodies that pass from one state to another.

From this point forward, there being no body that does not belong to one of the three kingdoms of Nature, mineral, vegetable, and animal, whenever any body is presented for study, the first act of the pupils is to tell to which of the kingdoms it belongs.

If it is a common object offered to the pupils, a book, an inkstand, a fruit, they accustom themselves to distinguish their nature, saying if they are natural or artificial, and so they acquire some useful notions upon certain industries.

In the schools, where this subject is best taught, the teachers take great care that a general connection exists between the first and the later lessons, so that the knowledge progressing in a natural and upward order meets with no great difficulties in its acquisition.

The elementary knowledge of the natural sciences is not the only knowledge gained by the pupils in this manner, but they are also taught, as repetition, all other ideas connected with the object presented, without allowing the study to wander too far from the points in question to others which are difficult from their very nature.

Thus, if the teachers present to their pupils a *glass*, the questions will not go much further than these:—What object is this? Of what is it made? Is it natural or artificial? What form do its mouth, its sides, and its bottom present? What is its colour? Has it any smell? Is it solid or liquid?

And the teacher, after asking for the pupils to give some examples of other bodies with the same qualities, but with other names, shape or use, will give some simple notions upon the industry of glass, if the object presented is a glass, of the ceramic art if the object is made of argil, of joinery if it is wood, etc.

To aid the requirements of this teaching, as varied as it is useful, many teachers have dedicated themselves to organize museums in their schools, and with their own efforts joined with those of their pupils, these are becoming richer every day.

These museums are developing in certain schools, some of them already presenting a very fine aspect.

Collections of wood-specimens of our country, in which it is very rich, are already to be seen in some of these museums, as well as of cereals, and of dried plants; coffee, cocoa, vanilla, and cotton; samples of the products of industry by the side of the raw material of which they are made; of minerals, and of some animals, generally insects or reptiles.

Dr. Ennes de Souza, Director of the Mint, is about to enrich these museums with an excellent collection of specimens of minerals, which will be accompanied by a practical guide for the respective teaching.

There are some collections of specimens of wood cut in the shape of books, the names of which will be written on the back, presenting the aspect of an original library.

Things that cannot be presented to the pupils just as they are, are fully studied by means of pictures; but we may note that even without recurring to the museums, or to engravings, excellent object-lessons are given in the schools with the simple aid of common surrounding objects.

One of the most interesting lessons which I have listened to was one given by a teacher presenting his pupils the *sponge* that was upon the table. The excessive porosity of this object, and its quality as a zoophyte, awoke in the children the most lively curiosity, and each one tried to be first to form new questions, and to know what were the other zoophytes!

This curiosity being not only awakened but satisfied, and all the notions relative to this object communicated, the teacher said to them: — "Very well! All that you have just listened to you can read in one of the school-books," — and presenting one of them with the book open, made him read in a loud voice all the passage, the reading being accompanied by all the others with the greatest attention.

At other times it is in the school-museum itself that the object-lesson presents its essentially intuitive character.

The teacher wishes, for example, to show his pupils the first state of the cotton jacket worn by one of them.

He takes this pupil and his class-companions to the school-museum, shows them the prepared leaves of the cotton-tree, if there is not a garden in the school, and in this garden the shrub itself; he gives them some notions upon the *Malvaceas* family to which it belongs, its kind—*Gossypium*, and its species—

Gossypium herbaceum; after, he shows a cotton ball containing cotton and stones; shows them the cotton and stones separately, explaining the utility of these seeds, the oil that they produce submitted to pressure; shows them the cotton in thread, prepared for the tissues; and finally the tissue itself, the coarsest such as sail-cloth, and the finest such as that used in our linen. Engravings, representing the different machinery employed for this purpose, complete the explanations.

When the object-lesson refers to the human body, and to Natural History, in general, it is also aided by engravings in the schools, or by the manikin *écorché*, of Deyrolles, existing in the *Pedagogium*, where many groups of pupils go with their teachers to study this subject, and where there already exists an excellent museum, destined to the various branches of this study.

In this district some well organized school-museums already exist, such as those to be seen in the schools of the following teachers: Adolpho Pereira dos Santos, D. Thomazia de Vasconcellos, D. Adelina Vieira, D. Maria Dias França, D. Alina de Brito, D. Hortensia Rodrigues, and Velho da Silva.

Object-lessons, always varied and attractive, are very much appreciated by the pupils.

GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

The study of one of these subjects always awakes the study of another.

Geography, by its political, agricultural, commercial, and industrial bearing, always brings to mind the great men, whose biographies the teacher imparts to his pupils; and History, being the narration and the criticism of human facts, always calls to mind the places, cities, and nations where they took place, and where their principal personages were born and lived.

Geography purely physical is the part most removed from the study of History. It is there that the same study of general Geography begins, as is to be seen in the programmes of the first and second classes of the elementary course.

And how should this study begin? By the map? By the globe?

The programme of the first class of the elementary course ordering the pupils to be taught first to recognize the situation of the Federal Capital, of the State of Rio de Janeiro, and of the neighbouring States, *on the maps*, seems to show that the study of Geography must begin by the maps; but as this very programme orders taught the knowledge of the earth, its form, extension and great divisions, it is always having a globe in sight, or an object that represents it, that the teachers initiate this teaching.

The designations of the cardinal points are given only practically in these two classes, without any definition, or really scientific study.

The teachers take great care to familiarise the pupils with the form of the earth, furnishing them with exact notions upon the diverse irregularities of the terrestrial surface, of continents, promontories, islands, capes, peninsulas, isthmuses, seas, rivers, lakes, gulfs, etc., shown to them in special maps, or on the globe.

Generally the teachers, in this district, are not satisfied with the definition of what an island, a cape, a mountain is; they ask the boy to show them one of our islands, capes, and mountains.

It is also only after the island is shown on the map, that the teacher asks for the definition of it, and so also in relation to other geographical accidents.

Mr. Gustave José Alberto, a teacher of this district, is making, in *relievo*, a panorama of the principal of these irregularities, taking for a model the city of Rio de Janeiro and its environs.

From the Atlantic Ocean that bathes it in front of its great bay, covered with large and small islands, to the mountains that enclose it at the end, everything is indicated in the work of this teacher.

To-day that teaching by the aspect, and by the senses, especially that of sight, is by all considered as the best, because experience has already demonstrated it, we cannot fail to recognize the utility of these works.

Unhappily in our schools we have not as yet the necessary abundance of maps in *relievo*, and even of globes though the utility of the globes in *relievo* is contested by some authorities as Schrader and Levasseur, who censure their use, seeing that this idea does not correspond with the reality ; but awaking, as they do, in the child's mind, the image, in miniature, of the accidents of the earth, there is no doubt they are useful.

In the study of Geography many things are adopted conventionally. Not only on the globes, but also on the maps—the equator, the ecliptic, and the meridians, etc., are only imaginary lines, because they do not really exist on the surface of the earth.

If it is so, the *relievo* on the surface of the globe of study corresponding to that of the terrestrial globe, can have nothing improper, prejudicial or useless.

The globe divided into hemispheres, the invention of a North American teacher, Mr. Richard Parker, of Boston, giving a much better idea of the surface of the earth, than the simple *mappa mundi*, and the magnetic globe of Pierce, on the surface of which the antipodes can be seen, are much more useful to teaching than all the explanations given with a map, that has not the form of the earth, and whose flat surface confuses the investigations and applications, that the boy may wish to make of the explanations that he hears.

Our teachers, for these motives, try to make, with a globe of study in sight, their pupils well acquainted with the form of the earth, its great divisions, and the principal accidents of its surface.

The study of maps comes afterwards, and it is only given in the two classes of the elementary course, to show the pupils the twenty-one States of Brazil, their capitals and limits, great fluvial basins, etc., the principal notions, finally, in reference to our vast territory, which are learned with greater facility in view of a great map like the especial map of Levasseur, destined exclusively to the study of the Physical Geography of Brazil.

As soon as the children show themselves able to draw the outlines freely, and are advanced in the study of Drawing itself, many teachers direct them immediately to chartographical drawing, and in some schools excellent maps of various States of Brazil have already been drawn.

The teaching of History is, at present, very different from that of some years ago.

The old system of learning by heart is done away with. The memory preserves its function of a simple, though powerful aid. There are no long recitations, but short expositions, rendered intelligible by the analysis and criticism of the facts they contain.

As to proper nouns, and dates, the principal ones only are committed to memory, not mechanically, but by the appreciation of the important historical facts, to which they refer.

Thus, the discovery of America brings to mind Christopher Columbus, and the year 1492; the discovery of Brazil brings to mind Pedro Alvares Cabral, and the year 1500; the independence of Brazil reminds us of José Bonifacio, D. Pedro I, and the year 1822; the proclamation of the Republic calls to mind General Deodoro da Fonseca, and the year 1889.

This appreciation is always given in a conversational form, between the teacher and his pupils, who are simultaneously questioned and consulted upon the historical point given.

When this conversation renders necessary the indication of the spot, where such a man was born, where such a fact took place, or the indication of the voyage of a remarkable sailor, of the march of an army, etc., these indications are then given by the pupil on the map, or on the globe.

There is always thus a mutual repetition of Geography and History.

Good teachers always take advantage of the lessons of History to awake, in their pupils, the love of country and liberty, to develop in their minds the spirit of observation, and the practice of a just criticism, forming their civic character.

Engravings representing historical facts, in chronological order, aid this study efficaciously, especially the *Scenes of our National History*, the author of which is Dr. Menezes Vieira, able Director of the *Pedagogium.*

This study, in the two classes of the elementary course, is only preparatory, and cannot be properly called the study of History.

The complete historical study, in which the Philosophy of History is taught, is reserved for the more advanced classes, formed as they are by pupils of a certain age and intellectual maturity.

MORAL AND CIVIC INSTRUCTION.

The Regulations of 8th November 1890 determine: "moral and civic instruction will not have a distinct course, but will constantly occupy the teachers' attention, in the highest degree."

The school is the miniature of Society. All the passions and virtues that later on will have to struggle on the great stage of life, are there met with in their germ. To animate the development of the good sentiments, and to root out the bad, by the comparison between them, this is the great mission of the teachers.

This comparison is only efficacious when it is made in view of the facts taking place in the school itself, among the pupils, and not by means of theoretical dissertations.

For these motives, and as the Regulations determine, there is not a distinct course of these subjects; but they are taught when occasions offer, that present themselves at each moment in the school. As however even by reason of the facts occurring in the school, some time is necessary for a conversation between the teacher and his pupils, it is a custom, in this district, also to include in the schedule a few moments for this subject.

Many teachers to awake in their pupils a love of work, and to show them that it is by labour and good behaviour that man can conquer the esteem of others, concede a special badge to those who, during a month or quarter, gain the greatest number of good marks, and make them monitors of the classes where they study. Other teachers adopt also the table of honour.

We could treat here of the question of school prizes; but this subject forming no part of the province of our work, we shall only say that most teachers in this district are in favor of the granting of prizes, not as a material recompense, but as a demonstration of the esteem that we must give to the studious pupils.

Some teachers of this district, as Mr. Luiz dos Reis, have opposed in writing the opinions of Mr. Sluys, the celebrated Director of the Normal School of Brussels, which was visited by the Brazilian teacher mentioned, and of Dr. F. A. Berra, the remarkable pedagogist of Montevideo, who are entirely adverse to school prizes.

We judge the system of prizes more in accordance with human nature, when once the teacher takes care to imbue the minds of his pupils with exact notions on this subject, showing them that the prize is not a payment, or an object of material value, but a sign of esteem, and that they must not work to gain the *object*, but to deserve the *consideration* that it signifies.

This being exactly what passes, among men, in social life, it is also well that school-life should be thus directed, because the school prepares the child for society, amid which he will have to live, and not exclusively to virtue, that represents a superior degree of perfectibility.

A man practising good only for the love of it, fulfilling his duty only because it is his duty, indifferent to the praise of his fellow-citizens, to public opinion, and to the rewards of a moral character, will be, without doubt, a virtuous man, and, therefore, an exception; but, though showing to his pupils the great value of such an exception, the teacher cannot make of it the general rule.

Prizes, considered in this way, represent only esteem to the merits of the pupils, and, for this reason, such prizes are always either a book with a handsome binding, or objects used in the school.

The administration, with a view of establishing later on a rule based on experience, have left this subject to the teachers' discretion, limiting themselves to furnish the prizes to the teachers who wish to give them to their pupils.

Moral teaching is as much as any other a practical teaching. There is not in our schools any book or manual destined to it.

The book may at the moment of reading furnish an occasion for the teaching of a moral fact ; but it is not by reading that the child learns to know the true value of good sentiments, and to know the dangers, to which bad sentiments may lead us.

Occasions always appear, in the class or in the play-ground; and these being based on facts that, by their positive nature, immediately call the attention of all the pupils, a good teacher never loses these occasions.

To inspire horror to vice, and pity for the unhappy, there is no more appropriate spectacle than the one offered on a visit to an hospital, in whose beds lie miserable invalids, some taken there in *delirium tremens* by intoxication, others ruined by consumption, or taken there by licentiousness.

If this is a truth in relation to the great vices of humanity, it is also true that the contemplation of the facts, and of their consequences, cause a much more profound impression on the children than the theoretical exposition of the precepts.

The teacher's natural ascendant, his paternal authority, and his persuasive word complete the teaching.

Constant and prolonged daily practice produces the fruit. It is the positive system of Herbert Spencer completing, by practice, the Christian precept of brotherly love: *Vos omnes fratres estis!* Such is the direction that I have sought to impress on this teaching.

Civic education must go hand in hand with moral education.

For what purpose does the school receive the child? For the purpose of making him later on a happy and useful person.

Cultivating only the moral sentiments in the child's heart, will the school obtain this end? No; because above morality in society, there is Law, that is Public and Private, Political and Civil.

To know our own rights, so as to know those of others, is a great necessity. To interest the citizen in the public cause, in the good march of public business, is a consequence of this knowledge: there is no society well organized without these conditions.

The school is the miniature of society. These conditions must be learned in the school.

Civic education is an imperious necessity, specially in the system now inaugurated in Brazil. Democracy requires the dedication of all the citizens, and it devolves on the school to prepare them.

The School Regulations say that at once in their first article: "The primary school of the first degree is intended to give its pupils essential and indispensable knowledge for them to fulfil the duties, and exercise the rights of citizens of a free country."

This recommendation renders very salient the necessity of civic instruction, that begins to be given with special attention.

It is by means of conversations, full of interest, that, in the most advanced classes, the teachers awake the sentiments of the love of country, and of liberty, reviving the comprehension of political duties, and the development of the idea of law.

The comparison between the monarchical and republican forms of government is very often made. The hereditary privileges of the monarchical government, and thence the constitutional irresponsibility of the Monarch, the ostentation and arrogance of the courts are compared with the election of the chief of the State, with his responsibility, with the simplicity of the democratical government; but all this in the infantile terms of a true conversation.

When the teachers make the boys see that any one of them, as Mr. N. or N., by his good behaviour and application to study can come to be the President of the Republic, there is always applause from the little citizens !

One of our most able teachers, the intelligent Mr. M. J. P. Frasão, whose work unhappily does not lie in this district, has for nearly thirty years employed in the school under his direction a system of civic education, as useful as it is original.

"When you wish to make your pupils understand how bread can be made from corn, you will not be satisfied with making them read the process of this manufacture in the book. You show to them the grain; you take in the school-museum small machines and other instruments, and you show as practically as you can, the different transformations that corn passes through until it reaches the stage of bread. And so you will do in relation to other practical ideas.

"It is necessary also to apply the same intuitive method to teach the children a great number of practical ideas of civil life, as well as political and social education."

Starting from these principles, enunciated by him in his school, and in lectures given by him in some European cities, where he was sent in commission by our government, Mr. Frasão has given to his school *population* the organisation of a little constitutional representative State, with its Parliament, composed of six of the most able pupils of each class, classified according to merit, which is charged to criticize the procedure of the Ministry, this Parliament being constituted from month to month, with a Ministry whose members are named by the teacher.

The Ministry has three branches: Instruction, Discipline, and Finances.

That of Instruction directs the distribution of all the school material; that of Discipline looks to the behaviour of the pupils, in the school or out of it, and also to their neatness and that of the school; that of Finances administers the *Treasury*, for which he is responsible.

Each ministry has its clerks, named by the teacher, on proposal of the respective minister.

When the circumstances permit, the school is divided into two parties, and governed by that which has a majority, the struggle of these parties being directed by the teacher, having in view the efforts that each pupil makes to obtain the greater number of good marks.

There is a general legislation, that is composed of an organic law, the Constitution, and of ordinary laws, that cannot be contrary to this Constitution.

There are certain codes, the criminal, the penal, and that of suits.

There is also a financial system, and special school-money, in which the pupil receives rewards for the good, and pays fines for the fault practised.

This reward comprehends also the particular services that the school government may contract with the pupils, such services being those of cutting paper, sewing the copy-books, etc.

The school-money is composed of cards and notes of simple paper, each one with a respective number, subjected to an annual conversion, the financial administration also being registered in books, clearly, simply and properly kept.

The Ministry of Discipline giving a true notion of police, and of order, being exercised not only in the interior of the school, but also outside of it, furnishes the teacher with the means of educating his pupils conveniently, because they are subject to great dangers, especially at the age of puberty, if they are not observed and directed by the hand of a good father, or of a good teacher.

All this system reposes also upon the public opinion, that the teacher tries to found in the school, and that is a means of education.

The system of Mr. Frasão, appearing at first sight very complicated, is not so in fact, because, to execute it, nothing more is necessary than the regular life of this little human society—the school.

It is not by abandoning their lessons that the pupils practise it, but rather by paying attention to them.

It only requires a great deal of patience, attention and dedication on the part of the teacher to his school.

AGRICULTURE.

This subject and manual works did not formerly exist in our primary teaching. They were included in the respective programmes by the reform of 8th November 1890.

No special teachers having been appointed for them, they remained in charge of the former ones, many of whom have spared no efforts to teach them well.

During the past year there was a certain indecision; but this year good will has already produced some results, and this teaching begins to be given pretty well.

The regulations recommend it specially in the country schools, but do not totally dispense with it in the city schools.

In view of this, the teachers of this district have begun to teach the subject. To aid them the administration has opened a course of Agriculture in the *Pedagogium*, where excellent lessons on this subject are given by the teacher of the Normal School, Dr. Raymundo Monteiro da Silva.

As Inspector of Instruction I think of completing the theoretical lessons with excursions into the country, and visits to the places where rural labour is practised. These trips can be taken on Saturdays.

Our city possesses the Botanical Garden, where the State maintains a model establishment of Agriculture, the Zoological Garden, and some private establishments, that can be visited with profit. Such excursions will be, without doubt, very useful, the teachers taking the care to repeat afterwards in the school all the explanations given during them, and will serve also for the collection of samples of different objects for the school-museum.

A teacher of this district, Mr. Gustavo José Alberto, is making in his school, for the use of his pupils, a very interesting work: a great square of wood, divided into as many squares as represent the different qualities of soil: clay, sand, argil, humus, etc. Each one of these little squares contains a layer of earth, to which it is destined, and at the side of each one of them are placed, made in miniature by the teacher, the instruments appropriate to the quality of the ground: various forms of the spade, hoe, small hoe, plough, etc.

Many other manual works, in *relievo*, cardboard, wood, and plaster, have been made by this teacher.

Most of our public schools, accommodated as they are in hired buildings, are in want of ground for the practical exercises of Agriculture, and this subject can only be well taught practically.

The plantations of common vegetables, the culture of flowers, cereals, coffee, the sugar-cane, cotton, etc, can only be taught and learned practically.

Engravings are of very little advantage here.

MUSIC AND DRAWING.

All our schools are opened and closed to the sound of hymns sung by all the pupils, who also sing when class-work is suspended for recreation.

In some schools there are special hymns for certain occasions: the *hymn of authority* for occasions when some authority of Public Instruction appears at the school; the *sewing hymn* for the beginning of needle-work in some girls' schools, etc.

In the first class of the elementary course, the teaching of Music is only by ear ; in the second class begins the knowledge of the notes and of the musical scale.

This teaching is always collective.

On one of the sides of the black-board the musical scale is always traced in red ink. There the teacher, or the pupil he orders, writes the key notes, signs, etc,, and each pupil says in his turn the name and value of the note written.

All the class is interested by the teacher in the work they are doing.

The teaching of drawing, in most of our schools, begins, like that of calligraphy, on slates.

The exercises are afterwards done on paper with pencil, and gradually become more complicated, until they include the most difficult combinations of lines.

The reproduction of common objects begins at once in the first class.

In drawing, properly so-called, the use of instruments is forbidden.

In this teaching there is always a certain repetition of geometry by the drawing of the geometrical solids, and of the metrical system by the drawing of the metrical measures.

The exactness required in the reproduction of these objects on paper obliges the pupils to perfect the observation, and to acquire the necessary firmness.

The drawing of ornament, and cartographic drawing is practised in many schools with excellent results.

In this subject there are no theoretical rules. The practice, the observation, the advice of the teacher does everything : to persevere is the best means of obtaining a good result.

If such means are applied by pupils with a natural disposition and a true taste for this pretty art, the result is rapid and certain.

GYMNASTICS.

Physical education is the complement of intellectual education. *Mens sana in corpore sano.*

In all our schools there is the greatest care that children may duly profit, by this teaching, which affords them, besides its natural utility, a diversion to their intellectual work.

Destined, as it is, to obtain the tension of the muscles, and the flexibility of the body, it is teaching generally well accepted by the children, who enjoy the movement.

After the tension of each muscle has been well provoked by the movements of the fingers, hands, arms, head, trunk and legs, the teachers make their pupils march and counter-march, in some schools to the sound of the piano, and singing enthusiastic hymns.

The space is, as yet, wanting.

Such exercises require a yard, or field large enough for their execution, and the greater part of our schools are accommodated in private buildings, constructed for dwellings and not for schools.

Neither have we as yet school-battalions organized. Some authorities in matters of Public Instruction condemn the organization of these battalions, saying that they develop in the children the taste for the profession of arms, and that the interest of humanity is to do away with wars and with permanent armies.

The truth, however, is that the primary school cannot by itself have any influence in the solution of a great international problem like the abolition of wars; and to do away with great permanent armies the best means is just this: to make it possible for *every citizen to be a soldier, and every soldier a citizen.*

Switzerland, in this respect, gives us the best example.

Not having a numerous permanent army, she can, at a given moment, put on a war-footing a numerous army ; since on account of the military education given in their schools, of the organisation of her territorial militia (*Landwehr*), in Switzerland *every citizen is a soldier.*

MANUAL WORKS.

The teaching of this subject, applied to boys, and for the purposes that modern Pedagogy attributes to it, is as yet in its commencement in Brazil.

In the girls' schools, work called also manual has for a long time been taught, such as that of sewing, crochet, knitting, embroidery, the making in paper or card-board of objects for use or ornament, such as small boxes, baskets, purses, watch-fobs, card-cases, pocket-books, etc. ; artificial flowers made of cloth, leather, grains, etc. , but all this has been done without certain and graduated precepts, a true application of geometry and æsthetic art, such as Frœbel imagined, and such as Salomon and Boogaerts applied.

This scientific, artistic and pedagogic character bestowed on the teaching of manual works in Sweden, is also recognized in Germany, France and Belgium.

Mr. Sluys, who went to study this subject in Näas, in a notable report he wrote upon it, declares it very useful not only to develop the manual ability, and the artistic taste of the children, but also to assure the complement of the culture of their faculties.

He does not consider it only as being the apprenticeship of certain and determined professions.

In the same way Boogaerts looked upon it.

We must however note that this is not a new discovery. Such works have for many years been considered useful for these motives, and as such taught and learned.

The negligence of the governments, or of the directors of public instruction, have allowed that useful plant to die instead of growing and fructifying. Happily it is now reviving in the beneficial ardour of modern ideas !

This subject was already known at Paris in 1834 since we find publications with the following titles: *Art of manufacturing all sorts of objects in paper, or Easy beginnings of geometry taught for the construction in paper of chairs, tables, houses, etc.*, and also: *Art of constructing in card-board all sorts of objects of utility and amusement,* books that were sold at Andot's old book-store in the above-named city.

In the preface of the *Art of constructing in card-board* says the author:—"In this art, as in the *Art of manufacturing all sorts of objects in paper,* we have an end—that of instructing the young, giving them a very agreeable pleasure. By the objects made in paper, we had in view the first elements of practical geometry, namely—the means of producing such or such a figure, employing only the ruler and the compass, without mathematical combinations, without the difficulties of drawing, and giving only for a model objects very commonly seen, or the use of which is very familiar.

In this work on card-board we wish to give the pupil greater mechanical ability: without offering many more difficulties, it requires, nevertheless, a little more dexterity and labour.

This art, the taste of which we hope to propagate, is one of the most agreeable to which the young can apply themselves.

Besides the very attractive amusement that it affords us, it conceals under an apparent frivolity many kinds of utility, thus presenting in itself the two qualities, that the wise man requires for the recreation of the mind.

Is it not really a pleasure full of attractions for the young to give themselves up to the culture of an art, that will be useful to them in an infinite number of cases? It will make them capable of reproducing, at a trifling cost, the objects that please them, and whose acquisition will often be very costly, directing them in the construction of a little theatre of their own; in the making of boxes, in which they breed their silk-worms; of their cases for flies and butterflies; in the making of their medal-cases, etc.

It will make them acquainted with this pleasure so enjoyable when we experience it for the first time, producing something useful and agreeable: of manufacturing a present, the product of their own young industry; of receiving praise so much the more flattering as it will have been merited, and of being considered models in view of their companions less capable or less industrious.

If we should wish now to consider this art under another aspect, and appreciate duly all its advantages, it is necessary to note that it gives the pupil an occasion to practise the notions of drawing, that he may have acquired; that is accustoms him early to study, to application and to reflexion; that it makes him dexterous, and affords him agreeable hours, that he might lose in amusements frivolous, and sometimes hurtful.

The art of working in card-board is, besides, productive. The workmen that dedicate themselves to it, in Paris, gain good wages, and as no one is sheltered from the vicissitudes of fortune, it may well happen that this amusement of a happy infancy may become, in the day of misfortune, the resource of ripe age!

Among the French emigrants, those that had learned nothing in their childhood, shamefully stretched out their hands for alms, or lived by intrigues, or humiliations; those that possessed certain agreeable acquirements such as drawing, painting, music, or the art of turning, (which latter we teach), and others of the same kind, were able, in foreign countries, to make use of the acquirements afforded them, and thus enjoy the inestimable advantage of not burdening any one, and the satisfaction of being able sometimes to render aid to companions in misfortune, without resources."

The language employed to-day by Salomon, Sluys, or Boogaerts, is without doubt the same to show the utility of such teaching.

The difference is only that these words were written in 1834, nearly sixty years ago. At that time, as to-day, it was already acknowledged that manual labour, by application, not only renders the study of geometry easier, improving the æsthetic taste, but also that it is the useful and agreeable complement of the culture of the human faculties.

Various engravings show in the *Art of constructing in card-board* which are the figures to be constructed: cylinders, prisms, cubes, etc., and a great quantity of common objects depending on these and of other geometrical forms.

The first engraving of the book represents the different instruments necessary to the construction of the objects.

At present, the method of Boogaerts dispenses with any instrument in the manual work ; but this method refers only to the work in paper, and for these also the *Art of manufacturing all sorts of work in paper*, of the old established bookstore Audot, of Paris, in 1834, dispensed with cutting instruments, requiring only the employment of the ruler and compass.

The card-board cannot be cut without instruments.

When Boogaerts occupies himself, in his method, with any work in card-board, he has recourse to playing cards that, if they are not cut by the pupils, have already been cut by somebody.

An intelligent teacher of this district, Mr. Velho da Silva, showed me in his school a copy of the *Art of constructing in card-board.*

We are now thinking of putting in practice, in our schools, manual work in keeping with the precepts of Pedagogy, that have acknowledged in these occupations educative virtues necessary to the entire culture of the human faculties.

The sons of rich families, or those who have no vocation for this kind of work, or who have to follow purely intellectual professions, will gain with this teaching that dexterity always useful, that every man should have, and will develop their faculties ; but the sons of the working-classes will gain something more, besides these advantages: to prepare themselves ready from the primary school, for the arts, and manual professions that they will have to adopt.

The heads of the great factories will come to the schools in search of the boys, who have concluded their studies, giving them work immediately, and preferring them to those without any practice or knowledge of manual work, and who in the factory itself would have to acquire their knowledge.

In my district, in some schools, these works have already had an excellent beginning.

In paper and card-board some of them are already made tolerably well, always having in view the applications of geometry.

Such is, in general outlines, the way in which the programmes are executed; such are the ideas which their execution obeys.

In Rio Janeiro we have free, gratuitous and lay primary instruction, and its teaching is under the charge of teachers, some of whom have won their places by competitive examinations; others have a diploma given by the Normal School, and others are merely appointed by the Government, but taken, as is determined by the art. 73 of the Reform dated 8th November 1890, from the class of the old assistant-teachers, and only for the vacancies existing at the time of this Reform being promulgated.

Article 14 of the same law determines that the position of a primary teacher shall be filled by competitive examinations among persons, who have concluded the course of the Normal School, and while there are no persons in these conditions, these places will be filled only by examinations.

As will have been seen by reading the exposition given, throughout our schools a true enthusiasm exists for the intuitive method, and all the teachers seek to become acquainted with it, in all its minutiæ, to improve and to employ it; nevertheless in this enthusiasm there is no undue subjection of the mind to the senses, nor the subordination of teaching to the narrow limits of the philosophy of Hobbes.

Reasoning is, in its turn, developed, exercised, perfectly educated. The theoretical rules, the abstract scientific precepts are, in their turn also, put into action, and gradually learned by the pupils.

The great utility of the intuitive method is more in the teaching of the first lessons given to the children, in the aid that it gives them in the first steps, which are the most difficult, but which they have to take for the acquisition of the first rudiments of knowledge, than in the superior classes, where, newertheless, it does not altogether disappear.

The first notions of teaching cannot dispense with the intuitive method. An American writer has already said:—"The eye seems to be the most open inlet to the mind; and when a child sees a thing, it is more effectually impressed upon his memory than if it had been described to him many times." (James Pyle Wickersham, School Economy.)

As a general rule, the Brazilian teacher is devoted to his school and his pupils, always seeking for the means necessary for the teaching to give the good fruits that it should give.

Nevertheless, it is a truth that nothing is more relative in this world than primary teaching. It is always directed to a great number of children, the faculties, characters, and sentiments of whom are different among themselves.

There are some children who learn quickly, though directed by bad or imperfect pedagogic processes; there are others who, though directed rationally, learn slowly, or do not learn at all.

To help the studious teachers, desirous of enlightening their minds, the Government has founded the *Pedagogium*, a great centre of all pedagogic improvements, with a library, school-museums, workshops, that unhappily are not yet working, together with various collections of objects destined to the study of natural history, etc.

The direction of this establishment is confided to Dr. Menezes Vieira, a notable educator, who founded and maintained in this city, for many years, an excellent school, in which he put into practice all the precepts of modern pedagogy.

The *Pedagogium* is also the place destined to lectures upon Public Instruction, and annual exhibitions of all school work.

The *Pedagogic Review* is a monthly publication issued under its superintendence.

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THIRD PART.

(DESIDERATA.)

DESIDERATA.

The most urgent necessity of our public teaching is the accommodation of the schools in appropriate buildings, specially built for this purpose.

Some years past the Government ordered buildings destined to our public schools to be constructed ; but very few were constructed, and the greater part of the schools continue in hired buildings, in which there is nearly always a want of space and appropriate conditions to school-life, the State paying large sums for the rent of such buildings.

Without vast rooms, light and well-aired, without yards and gardens, school-life is, without doubt, imperfect and incomplete.

Happily, we are told that the Government is now thinking of taking decisive measures in this respect.

When these measures are taken, that will give us the *space*, that together with the *time*, is the indispensable condition of true progress, and that would permit us to set the schools in the points of the city, where they might be most necessary, which at present is not always possible, what we most want is a general law establishing *compulsory primary education.*

Our recent political constitution, unhappily, did not foresee the case, and, without doubt, for the purpose of carrying the principles of the federal *régime* to their last consequences, has left absolute liberty to the States of the Union to legislate upon the subject.

We do not adopt this doctrine in relation to primary instruction, because this subject is the one that most nearly interests the State, whose duty it is to combat ignorance, to promote civic education, to banish from its midst political indifference, and all bad passions.

Without *compulsory education* it is very difficult to obtain the realization of this *desideratum*. Children either do not frequent the schools that, very often, are at a few steps from their own doors, or frequent them so irregularly, that they never obtain real profit.

Others, as soon as they know a little reading, writing and arithmetic, are taken away by their parents and destined to other work, which they enter upon with incomplete and imperfect notions of life.

All these evils would be avoided by *compulsory education*, that offends no right, because there is no right to maintain in ignorance children, that are the future citizens of the Republic.

The State has not the right to require children to frequent this or that school, but has the right to require them to frequent some school, where they may learn, and to call for yearly proofs of the instruction received.

The defence of society against its greatest enemy —ignorance, is exactly in these measures.

In this point we can still say: *Let us look at North America!....*

After this, our primary school orgnization will not be complete, without creating maternal schools for children from three to seven years of age, and of correctional schools for children, whose character, or incorrigible behaviour, may render their presence prejudicial in common schools.

Maternal schools existing in France for ten years have given the best results.

The working classes so numerous in great cities struggle with serious difficulties in not having a place to leave their children, when the father and mother go to their daily work, leaving them therefore in the charge of persons that cannot take due care of them, or abandoning them entirely.

The maternal school fulfils this sad want, receives the children, and at once proportions to them physical, intellectual and moral education, according to their tender age.

The condition of these children, thus trained, with that care that the family cannot give them, on entering the primary school afterwards, at seven years of age, will render the task easier of the primary teacher, who at present has to struggle with great difficulties to control many children, that are confided to him, often without any education, wayward and insubordinate.

We think that in the city, where there are many good maternal schools, in a short time the correctional school will have no pupils to receive.

In the actual condition of our Public Instruction the correctional school is a necessity.

While a great number of boys without any education, and some of an ill-natured temperament are taken to the primary schools, our system of discipline is very imperfect.

The teacher can only employ in his school the following modes of punishment, as the Regulations determine: bad mark; reprehension; prohibition from going to the play-ground, or from going home, after the class; temporary exclusion, never to exceed three days.

This system of discipline is not thoroughly efficacious, not in relation to the generality of the children, but to many of them who, by natural temperament, by the abandonment of their parents, by the places where they have lived, sneer at the moral effect of these punishments, thus putting their teachers and the school itself in a difficult position.

We do not ask for corporal punishments for such children : this would be a remedy worse than the evil itself; but we ask for the correctional school, the *régime* of the boarding-school, where a continual watchfulness, manual work taught more slowly, together with prolonged physical exercises by the side of constant moral examples, may modify their temperament, saving them from ruin.

The maternal school under the direction of female-teachers will give poor homeless children the kindness and care they cannot otherwise receive; and the correctional school, conferring an equal benefit, will save from complete ruin those already corrupted.

The teaching given in these schools is that which constitutes the best part of the sacred mission of the teacher, because to-day it is generally recognized that the primary school is not only destined to the instruction of the mind, but also to the education of the heart.

We are told that moral education is a subject belonging exclusively to home-life; but this opinion is nothing more than a great mistake, when once we remember that, besides a great number of children having no family at all, many of them have a home, but one entirely incapable of furnishing them with good examples, or even with good advice!

Under our present system of public instruction the teachers always complain of the embarrassments their efforts encounter from the parents of the children, parents who very often, are the first to tell the children not to obey the orders of the teachers!

Whoever knows these difficulties will certainly applaud the creation of maternal and correctional schools.

Time, space, and teachers in relation with the number of children to be taught, are indispensable conditions to the good order of school-work.

We do not as yet possess them completely.

Space being lacking in many schools, as it really is, time is lacking also, because the number of teachers is not as yet in proportion with that of the children to be taught, and with the number of the subjects of the programmes.

Each school is under the direction of a head-teacher, to whom assistant-teachers are given; but this head-teacher must have under his direction one of the classes, to the pupils of which he has to teach the subjects of the respective programme; he has under his direction also the school book-keeping; he has further to attend to the children's parents, who go to enter their sons in the school.

The head-teacher has also to give all the explanations asked for by the authorities of Public Instruction.

The assistant–teachers are at present so few in number, that it is not possible to attend to the wants of the schools.

In a short time such wants will be attended to, and we think that the best way is that of creating at once a fixed number of places for assistant-teachers, with good salaries, to invite intelligent young people to dedicate themselves to the life of primary teaching; and to fill these places by competitive examinations, so that only competent persons can obtain them.

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CONCLUSION.

CONCLUSION.

The description we have just given shows that Primary Instruction, in this district under our direction, in Rio de Janeiro, is as yet modest specially in view of the Primary Instruction imparted in the great country—The United States of North America; this description, nevertheless, also shows that the teachers of this school department, and the respective Inspector, author of this outline, are all animated with the great and noble desire of being useful, of working, of progressing!

This desire ennobles our efforts, and renders them productive. Reflection directs the steps, nerves the arm, lengthens the view, inspires the man: and our thought is constantly bent on improving our means of teaching.

To think is to live! To live must be to produce! Producing constantly more, better, and more quickly—this is the sum of all human science!

To read, to observe, to compare, and to practise—these are the means which reasoning has of obtaining this grand result.

No other nation in the world has better understood and applied these precepts than the Americans and the English.

Our desire is to follow their edifying example.

When the God of the nations created the New

World, and divided it between the twin-sisters, the two Americas, He granted them, without doubt, the grandest destinies.

If the natural wealth is immense there; if the waters have the might of Niagara, of the Mississipi, and of the Columbia, in North America, of the Amazon, Tocantins and San Francisco in Brazil; if the bowels of the earth there conceal treasures like those of California, and in Brazil those of Minas Geraes and Santa Catharina; if the mountains rise up to Heaven, covered with a rich vegetation, like the Alleghany and the Blue Mountains, and in Brazil the *sierras* of Mar and of Vertentes; if in both Americas the ground is fertile, the climate delightful, the forests immense—man placed in such regions should be worthy of so much grandeur!

North Americans, the intelligent sons of the great Union, *Virginian* or *Yankee*, give the wonderful spectacle of order and progress, of production and economy; Benjamin Franklin teaches the people, combats tyranny: of him Turgot said: *eripuit cælo fulmen, sceptrumque tyrannis;* Washington founds the Republic, and refuses a third re-election to the position of President, so that the highest national investiture may appertain to other citizens; Jefferson follows this worthy example; Lincoln defends the great cause of the abolition of slavery, and dies assassinated; intelligent ladies, like Harriet Beecher Stowe and Lucrecia Moot, fight valiantly and constantly in favor of the great cause; slavery is abolished, and production increases, wealth augments in spite of a dreadful war!

For these motives all the nations of the world applaud the great people of North America: France through Laboulaye and Hippeau, and Chili through Lastarria.

Primary Instruction understood as North America has understood it, has been the principal author of these great results.

At present, Brazilians are trying to follow this beneficial example.

We are told that in this subject there is a question of race. The anglo-saxon race by its habits of order, perseverance and *self-government*, can easily obtain these wonderful results; the Latin race, restless and revolutionary, cannot obtain them.

We think we answer right in saying that in this subject it is rather a question of education, than a question of race.

The truth recognized by all is, that man is the product of two factors—disposition and education, it being certain that education constitutes in him a second nature, very often modifying his disposition almost altogether.

The Brazilian educated from his early years in London or Paris, is more an Englishman or a Frenchman than a Brazilian.

Education is stronger than either birth or race.

The most serious objection to what we have said is that the efforts of the primary school would become useless in view of the great mass constituting the nation already organized; because the young issuing from the school, though perfectly educated, will encounter a society directed by different principles, and they themselves will be lost in that ***mare magnum*** constituted by inveterate customs.

This opinion is a mistaken one.

The young are the new blood of society. They have the enthusiasm of pure souls for all generous ideas, and duly educated they will struggle, will re-act against society, one day becoming the triumphant reformer and conqueror.

To establish the Republic in our old monarchy it was necessary first to make republicans, and, among so many others, the young men educated by Benjamin Constant, who have rendered excellent services to the Republic, are striking examples.

To educate! This is the secret of the great social and political reforms. It is a work of time, but it is the only one capable of giving real and lasting results.

This is the great mission of governments, and must be the great care of society itself, as it is in North America.

To educate the citizen is to educate the elector, and the election is the key of all democratic government.

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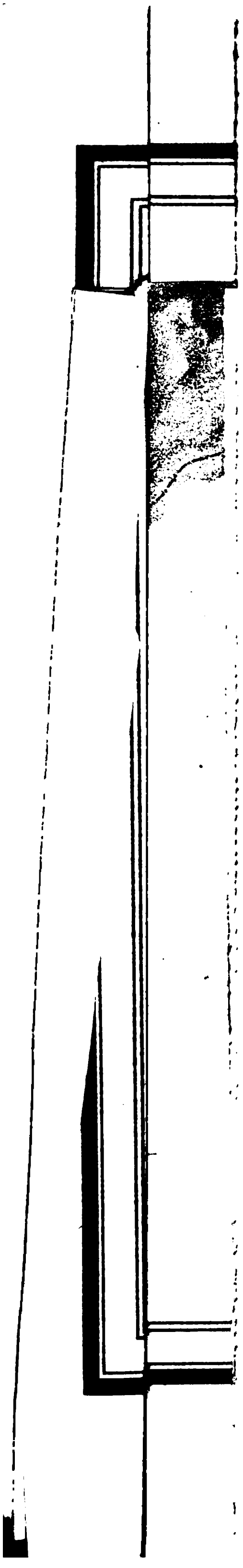

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